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Western Kentucky University, Bowling Green, Kentucky 42101

EDITORIAL

William S. Buckman
Chairman, International Education Committee
of the Board of Regents

International programs at Western provide opportunities for faculty and students to learn about other cultures and to obtain a global perspective: they indeed reduce provincialism at the university. As the world shrinks because of the advances in communications, nations will become more interdependent. In this nuclear age, it is imperative that we learn to cooperate and live in harmony. I do believe that international programs can be an important component in achieving the necessary understanding and tolerance.

Many of our faculty have benefited by their involvement in cooperative studies with other countries. I personally benefited when I served as a technical consultant for Latin American countries and some of those experiences are unforgettable. For example, the night that demonstrators chanted outside our hotel in Nicaragua will be remembered. Similar experiences were probably encountered by other faculty members involved in international programs, and astonishing experiences probably also occurred for the following faculty: Carlton Jackson as he served as a Fulbright lecturer, Joe Cangemi as he consulted on management behavior, Larry Boucher as a Fulbright lecturer in Colombia, and James Martin as he studied horticulture production in Columbia and Ecuador. Not only do our faculty benefit from these experiences but so do our students, our state, and our nation.

Our Board of Regents will be addressing questions concerning international programs during this next year—questions such as 1) Can we provide a more hospitable environment for the international students? 2) Do we attempt to attract students in study areas that will benefit both the students and their countries? 3) Can we provide better exchange programs for both faculty and students? 4) Can we improve intra-as well as inter-institutional cooperation for international programs?

Certainly the international programs have benefited our university and Kentucky. We must build on the dedicated work of others and provide even stronger international programs.

CENTER DIRECTOR RECEIVES FULBRIGHT LECTURESHIP

Dr. Richard Salisbury, Director of the Center for Latin American Studies at Western Kentucky University, received a Fulbright Senior Lectureship to teach and pursue research in Costa Rica. He left Bowling Green in March and will return to Western in December, 1982. Mrs. Mary Ann McCelvey, staff assistant for the Center, is serving as Acting Director in his absence.

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Contributions are welcomed from anyone interested in Latin American and hemispheric cooperation.

Si usted quiere contribuir un artículo o comentar sobre cualquier tema en esta revista, escriba por favor al Center for Latin American Studies, Western Kentucky University, Bowling Green, Kentucky 42101.

WESTERN GRADUATES TEACHING IN COLOMBIA

Four Western graduates were hired in the fall of 1981 to teach at the elementary level in the new Colegio Bilingüe Jorge Emilio Gutierrez in Fusagasaga, Colombia. They are Rita Conover, Terri Simpson, Cindy Webster, and Maree Kuhne. Three additional teachers, Stan Brown, Elise Frederick, and Kurt Walker, also graduates of Western, will begin their teaching duties at the school this summer.

SISTER CITIES PROGRAM

For the second year Bowling Green, Kentucky, hosted a group of young people from Santo Domingo de los Colorados, Ecuador, as part of the Sister Cities International program. This year the five students who visited were Freed, Holger, and Pericles Velastegui, David Riero Rodriguez, and Enrique Gordon. As guests of several families in Bowling Green, they participated in many activities arranged by members of the local Sister Cities organization and attended classes at Bowling Green Senior High School.

The Sister Cities of Bowling Green Youth Program was organized this year as a result of these visits by Ecuadorian young people. The current president of the youth group is Mark Lowry. Several of its members are looking forward to visiting Ecuador next year.

Because of the exchanges that have taken place between Bowling Green and Santo Domingo, there is a better understanding of the two cultures, and strong ties of friendship have been established.

SPRING CONFERENCE ON LATIN AMERICA

The Spring Conference on Latin America, co-sponsored this year by the Center for Latin American Studies and the Department of Government, took place the week of April 19, 1982, and had as its theme "Central America: Region in Crisis." On April 20, a Latin American buffet was held followed by a slide presentation and lecture on "Rural Life in Guatemala." The talk was given by Steve Sherman, who with his wife, Magda, worked in a mission hospital in the Peten area of Guatemala until December, 1981, when guerrilla activity in the area forced the hospital to close. On April 22, David Simcox of the U.S. State Department and currently Diplomat-in-Residence at the University of Louisville, spoke on "U.S. Policy in El Salvador." Mr. Simcox's lecture was followed by a discussion of "The Central American Perspective" by three Western students, Erick Depuy (Panama), Jorge Garcia (Puerto Rico), and Gioconda Guzman (Nicaragua). Dr. John Petersen, Professor of Government at Western, was moderator for the session. During the week, meals at the Academic Complex, the faculty and staff dining room on campus, featured menus from a different area of Latin America each day. The following article by Mr. Simcox is a discussion of U.S. policy in Nicaragua.

THE UNITED STATES AND NICARAGUA: WHY THE PROBLEM?

*David E. Simcox
U.S. State Department
Washington, D.C.*

Background: Toward the end of the Nicaraguan civil war, the OAS passed a resolution in June 1979 calling for "immediate and definitive replacement of the Somoza regime"; "guarantee of the respect for human rights of all Nicaraguans without exception"; and "the holding of free elections as soon as possible, that will lead to the establishment of a truly democratic government that guarantees peace, freedom and justice." In a letter to the OAS in July 1979, before assuming power, the Provisional Government of National Reconstruction promised to "install a regime of democracy, justice and social progress in which there is full guarantee for the right of all Nicaraguans to political participation and universal suffrage"; "guarantee the full exercise of human rights and fundamental freedoms"; and organize "a mixed economy."

The Sandinista leaders have reneged on these promises. They have ignored a basic tenet of the inter-American system — nonintervention in the affairs of other states — by providing materiel and other support for subversion in El Salvador and elsewhere. Nicaragua also is engaged in a rapid arms buildup which threatens the security of its neighbors. Rather than strengthening democracy, the Sandinistas have concentrated on consolidating political power, imposing heavy constraints on opposition activity and postponing elections. This trend led Eden Pastora, a founder and popular hero of the Sandinista movement, to break publicly with them in April, 1982, accusing them of betraying their promises of freedom and progress. The economy has done poorly despite more than \$125 million in US aid and several hundred million from other Western donors. Production is well below prerevolutionary levels. Largely because of the regime's hostility, private internal and external investment is almost nonexistent.

Intervention in El Salvador: Nicaragua is the support and command base for the Salvadoran guerrillas. Arms and supplies are received in Nicaragua and transshipped by land, air, and sea to El Salvador. The guerrillas' Unified Revolutionary Directorate has its headquarters near Managua; with the help of Cuban and Nicaraguan officers, it coordinates logistical support, including food, medicine, clothing, money, and munitions, and selects targets to be attacked. Salvadoran guerrillas move through Nicaragua to Cuba and elsewhere for training; some training is conducted in Nicaragua. The Sandinistas also provide support for leftist extremists in Guatemala, Honduras, and Costa Rica.

Military buildup: Nicaragua, with a population of 2.7 million, has expanded its active duty forces to 20,000-25,000—at least twice the size of Somoza's National Guard; reservists and militia exceed 50,000. To accommodate this force, the Sandinistas have built 36 new Cuban-designed military garrisons, in addition to 13 garrisons inherited from the National Guard. In contrast, Costa Rica has no standing army, and Honduras, with 1 million more people than Nicaragua, has total forces of about 17,500. Some 2,000 Cuban military and internal security advisers are in Nicaragua, and several hundred Nicaraguan military are training in Cuba. Sophisticated weapons, including Soviet-made T-55 tanks, amphibious ferries, and transport aircraft, have been added to Nicaragua's arsenal. Airfields have been lengthened to handle MIG aircraft; Nicaraguan pilots are training in Eastern Europe. Recently, Nicaragua also has purchased rocket-launchers, helicopters, and patrol boats from France.

US policy: While the US had shared the hopes for a pluralistic, nonaligned Nicaragua, we have been increasingly concerned with the deteriorating conditions and have repeatedly called our concerns to the Sandinistas' attention. Assistant Secretary of State Enders went to Managua in August 1981 to meet with Nicaraguan leaders. Against the background of increasing restrictions on domestic dissent, the discussions focused on the regional security problems caused by Nicaragua's military buildup and arms supply to Salvadoran guerrillas. In exchange for Nicaraguan action on our concerns, the US offered resumption of economic aid and cultural/technical exchanges and assurances we would not aid groups seeking to overthrow the Nicaraguan Government. In March, 1982, although the Sandinistas had demonstrated no willingness to address our concerns, Secretary Haig reaffirmed US willingness to discuss outstanding issues, and in April our Ambassador presented specific proposals to the Nicaraguan government. The new eight-point US plan includes a proposed regional arrangement for arms limitations and international verification. We would welcome cooperation with a pluralistic Nicaragua committed to peace and friendship with its neighbors.

COMMENTS OF A FULBRIGHT

Laurence J. Boucher
Head of the Department of Chemistry
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For an academic who has moderate Spanish language skills, a Senior Fulbright Lectureship offers the opportunity not only to share his or her expertise with colleagues in Latin America, but also to renew interests in the more advanced aspects of his or her discipline. More importantly, perhaps, Americans can become acquainted with another country, its culture and its people. For these reasons I was pleased to accept an appointment as a Fulbright lecturer in Colombia during the summer of 1981. I conducted various courses in inorganic chemistry for graduate students and faculty at the Universidad del Valle (Cali), Universidad Industrial de Santander (Bucaramanga), Universidad de Antioquia (Medellin), Universidad Pontificia Javeriana (Bogotá), and the Universidad Nacional de Colombia (Bogotá). I lectured for two hours per day for three weeks at each university.

From a professional point of view, lecturing in graduate courses allows you to keep up with recent developments and advances in your discipline. If you are not very proficient in Spanish, lecturing also forces you to distill and simplify concepts to the point where you can communicate them efficiently and easily to native speakers. Answering the inevitable questions also severely tests your mettle as a teacher. Preparation is the key to success, and I spent several hours per day preparing my lectures. By and large the effort was worthwhile. The Colombian graduate students and faculty were attentive and aggressively interested in what I had to say. They were eager to learn of the latest developments in my field because they are not in the mainstream of science today. I found this quite stimulating and refreshing!

In addition to the courses, I gave a number of research seminars, consulted with faculty and students about research and educational projects, and presented invited lectures at national congresses. I also visited several research institutes where work was being carried out in coal science. This is an area of special emphasis in the Department of Chemistry at Western Kentucky University, and our expertise and departmental strength in coal chemistry was very relevant to the growing Colombian interest in that field.

It is well known that in today's energy-intensive world fossil fuel resources are of paramount importance. Progress in developing countries like Colombia is strongly linked to the availability of energy. Fortunately, Colombia has substantial coal reserves which are just being exploited on a large scale. For example, a joint venture of the Colombian government and Exxon is developing what will be the world's largest coal mine (El Cerrejón) in the Guajira Peninsula in northeastern Colombia near the Venezuela border. It is interesting to note that the national plan for the exploitation of the coal reserves was a major issue in the recent presidential election campaign. Because they feel that their country needs their help, Colombian chemists are now interested in coal chemistry. During the past few years research groups in coal chemistry have emerged at the Universidad Nacional, Universidad Industrial de Santander, Universidad de Antioquia, and the Universidad del Valle. I was able to interact with these groups during my stay last summer. As a result, several Colombian graduate students have applied for admission to the coal chemistry option of our M.S. program in chemistry at WKU. In addition, a professor at the Universidad Nacional has asked to spend his sabbatical leave at WKU with the coal chemistry group. Support for his stay is being sought under the Fulbright Scholar-in-Residence program. An indirect result of the contacts that were established between Colombia and WKU was the placement of one of our recent M.S. graduates from Colombia on the faculty of the Universidad del Valle this spring.

It is obvious that there are many professional advantages to be gained from lecturing in Latin America not only for the academic but also for his or her department and university. There is no doubt that the time spent away from the classroom and laboratories of WKU is well spent. The added bonus is the personal enrichment that occurs on an extended stay in another country. I was fortunate enough to have my family with me in Colombia. We were treated very well by everyone, and our hosts in each city we visited were generous and most gracious. It amazed us how much time they were willing to spend on making our stay as rewarding as it was. The friends we made in Colombia last summer are certainly the greatest reward we received.

Colombia is a beautiful country with a marvelous and varied terrain. It changes from lush tropical to rugged mountainous to arid desert to plains. The variety of plants, flowers, birds and other animals is overwhelming. It is the naturalist's and camera buff's dream. With the help of our friends, we visited quite a large part of the country and many of its churches, museums, and historical sites. Some of the wonderful memories we have are of the Hacienda El Paraiso where Jorge Isaacs wrote *María*, the Hacienda Fizebad with its fantastic display of orchids, and the Gold Museum in Bogotá with its stunning pre-Colombian collection. It was a wonderful summer both professionally and personally.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF ARGENTINA'S COURTS

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The intent of this short paper is to give a brief history of the courts in Argentina. It deals primarily with the judicial structure, a few of the more important historical figures, and the procedures for trying a case. The paper is short, both by design and because very little material is available on this subject.

During Argentina's colonial period the most important fact concerning the practice of law was that there was no separate judicial branch of the government. On the lowest level justice was dispensed by the *Alcalde*, the mayor of a town or city. The *Alcalde* was the sheriff, the grand jury, the trial judge, the sentencing judge, the jail keeper and the fine collector all rolled into one. Every town had, in addition to the *Alcalde*, a *Cabildo*, or town council. The *Cabildo*, however, should in no way be confused with a legislative body of any kind. Laws were not formulated there. Instead, the *Cabildo* acted somewhat in the fashion of a review board, or in the judicial sense, as an appellate court, in supervising the actions of the *Alcalde*. The *Cabildo* should not be thought of, either, as a democratic institution. Its members, called *regidores*, served for one year and were commonly chosen by the retiring *regidores*. They had to be local residents, but more importantly, they also had to be "gentlemen." Even shopkeepers were regarded with some suspicion. The *Cabildos*, then, were exclusive clubs, and their actions tended to favor the ruling class.

Separate from the *Alcaldes* and the *Cabildos* were the ecclesiastical and military courts. The ecclesiastical court was basically a product of church tradition, and other than noting that it used a collegial panel of justices, it apparently had little influence on the development of the Argentine judicial system. The military courts were courts of summary justice whose primary function was to enforce discipline. They, too, apparently had little influence on the ordinary Argentine courts, as the execution of justice today is hardly as swift as was the immediate condemnation by an irate superior officer.

Between the cities and the viceregal government, there were no intermediary governing bodies in the colonial period. The viceregal government was embodied in the personage of a Viceroy and his council, the *Real Audiencia*. These were not separate entities, however, as the Viceroy appointed the members of the council and sat as its presiding officer when decrees were issued in his name. For judicial purposes the *Audiencia* acted as a court of appeals from the *Cabildos*, the ecclesiastical and the military courts. The *Audiencia*, however, could exercise original jurisdiction over any case it, or the viceroy, desired. Appeal from the *Audiencia* was to the *Consejo de Indias*, the body which had ultimate jurisdiction for all affairs in Spanish America. The *Consejo de Indias* can best be pictured as a board of directors of a large corporation, as its primary purpose was not to enact, administer or adjudicate laws for the betterment of society, but to make a profit for its sole stockholder — the king.

With regard to the appeal of a case, it must be pointed out that this was a privilege, not a right, a privilege normally granted only to a friend of the authority appealed to. Appeal, moreover, was not restricted to the defendant, but could also be made by the prosecution. An *Alcalde*, for example, could appeal to the *Real Audiencia* for a case overturned by the *Cabildo*. This procedure, later adopted by the Argentines, is distinctive, if one cares to compare the Argentine system to the Anglo-Saxon.

A word must be added concerning the colonial Spanish attitude toward justice. Justice was not arrived at based on a precedent established in another court. The laws were considered as absolutes. The interpretation could vary, depending on the circumstances, from case to case, but the decision of any "court" in any particular case did not alter the meaning or the intent of any law and did not influence the interpretation in any other case.

At the end of the colonial period there was a growing interest in the concept of an independent judiciary. In 1776 the *Consejo de Indias* issued an *Instrucción de Regentes* which indicated a desire to move toward establishing a separate judicial branch. Despite the intention of the *Instrucción* and the discussion going on both in the mother country and in the colonies, no firm action was taken until the colonial empire began to break up.

In May of 1810, many of the leading citizens of Buenos Aires gathered in a *Cabildo Abierto*, a sort of town meeting, to discuss their relationship to their king, as Spain was then being ruled as a puppet of the Napoleonic empire. The *Cabildo Abierto* withdrew its recognition from the Viceroy of Buenos Aires and established a *Junta Provisional* to serve as the government for all of the Rio de la Plata region. By the *Reglamento del 25 de Mayo de 1810*, the *Junta* became the executive and legislative organ of government, but the *Real Audiencia*, without the membership of the Viceroy, retained judicial responsibility. In July, 1810, however, because several cases were of an obviously political nature, the *Junta* assumed judicial authority over them. In one instance it ordered the execution of several men for political crimes.

The new year, 1811, brought a reiteration of the *Junta's* original decree to abstain from any judicial involvement. This restatement was the result of an argument directed to the *Junta* by Dean Funes that the establishment of an independent judiciary was one of the basic reasons why the Argentines had removed their Viceroy. Despite Funes' arguments and its own declaration, the *Junta* established a Jacobean style *Comision de Seguridad Publica* on April 20, 1811, with jurisdiction over all cases of a political nature. Finally, the *Comision*, which was a committee of the *Junta*, was given jurisdiction over all legal cases, and the *Real Audiencia* was left as an organ without any function.

The movement toward a separation of powers was not dead, however. On September 19, 1811, a new decree was passed creating a Triumvirate as the executive organ of the government, and on January 23, 1812, the *Junta* issued a

Reglamento de Justicia creating a *Tribunal Suprema de Justicia* as the supreme court of an independent judicial branch. January 23, 1812, is an important date in Argentine history. It is at this time that the three branches of government first appear as separate organs. It is also the time from which the judicial branch can date its final, permanent establishment.

Later in the same year, December, 1812, another decree, the *Reglamento de Policia*, established an independent police force with an autonomous *Jefe Alta de Policia*, a high Chief of Police. The law, then, in its enforcement and adjudication, was separated from the political sphere of the government.

In September, 1813, the *Reglamento de Justicia* was modified to give wider jurisdiction to the courts and to more firmly establish their procedures. The ecclesiastical courts were stripped of their right to try cases involving the church or a priest, and were left only with authority over strictly internal affairs of the church. The September, 1813, decree also required that the parties to a suit be represented by a lawyer, and that all testimony and transactions of the courts be recorded on sealed paper.

The structure of the judicial system grew more complex during the first few years of local government. At the bottom of the pyramid are the *Alcaldes pedaneos* who have jurisdiction over suits involving less than 50 pesos. In the rural towns the *Alcaldes ordinarios* have jurisdiction from 50 to 200 pesos, and in the cities the *jueces ordinarios*, ordinary judges, from 50 to 500 pesos. Appeal could be made to the municipal *Ayuntamientos*, then to the provincial *Alzada de la Provincia* and finally to the *Tribunal Suprema de Justicia*. The *Alzada de la Provincia* was a review board made up of the governor and two of his appointees, and the *Tribunal Suprema de Justicia* was, in reality, only a new name for the old *Real Audiencia*.

A novel but short lived judicial experiment was introduced with the *Reglamento de Justicia* in 1812. A *Tribunal de Concordia*, a court of conciliation, was set up as a separate system for settling private disputes. It provided for a conciliator to reconcile any financial disagreements between two parties at no cost to either. The system had been proposed in Europe as a means to relieve the courts of a heavy case load. In Argentina, where the judges and lawyers earned their living in proportion to the case load, the system evidently proved itself sufficiently successful to arouse a cry of protest from underworked judges and attorneys, and with the Federal Revolution of 1815 the system came to an early end.

The federal concept brought to the country with the April 15, 1815, Revolution introduced a new judicial structure. Now, as with the American system, there were two separate court structures: one provincial and one federal. The provincial judiciary was left untouched, but the federal structure was reorganized into a system of section courts or courts of first instance, courts of appeal and a supreme court. The Constitution of 1819, the product of the men who came to power in 1815, formally adopted the federal structure and gave the high court the new name of *Alta Corte de Justicia*.

This Constitution, although federalist in structure, was unitarian in spirit. The interior provinces of the country, jealous of their sovereignty and disgruntled with Buenos Aires attempts to acquire greater power, revolted. For the few years while each province was going its own way, the governor of Buenos Aires appointed Bernardino Rivadavia as one of his ministers. Rivadavia's influence on Buenos Aires was substantial and immediate. On February 15, 1823, he issued a decree forbidding the police from settling minor cases outside the courts, eliminating forthwith a great deal of dishonesty. On May 1, 1823, he issued a *Reglamento de Cárceres*, which ordered the jails to be used only for detention. Alcohol and gambling were forbidden, as was the intermingling of the social classes and the races. Each jail was divided into three patios: the first patio was reserved for "persons of good character," the second was to be occupied by whites and mestizos, and the third by blacks. At the same

time a separate *Casa de Corrección de Mujeres* was established for the less fair of the fairer sex. The reform for which Rivadavia has received most acclaim was not in the judicial field; it was the abolishment of the *Cabildos* and the establishment in their place of a provincial legislature.

In 1824 the interior provinces and Buenos Aires worked out an agreement to write a new constitution. The newly christened United Provinces made Rivadavia their President, and in 1826 the promised constitution was proclaimed. In relation to the judiciary it was identical to the 1819 version. It did, however, require the courts, which had previously conducted all of their trials in secret, to reveal the final ruling and announce the final vote in public. The Constitution of 1826, like its predecessor, was federalist in structure but unitarian in spirit, and once again the interior provinces were in revolt. The ensuing civil war, a war with Brazil, and the eventual disintegration of the national state brought an end to any further attempts at establishing a federal judiciary until 1852.

Juan Manuel Rosas, the governor of Buenos Aires and dominant figure in these in-between years throughout Argentina, replaced the *Alzada de la Provincia* of Buenos Aires with a *Tribunal de Recursos Extraordinarios* in 1838. It was a change entailing the transformation of the governor's review board into an independent high court. At the same time, he required that all court decisions be based firmly on law and not on judicial precedent, custom, or the whim of the judge.

In 1852, Rosas was ousted from his position as leader of a loose confederation of Argentine provinces, and once again the provinces agreed to write a constitution. Much of the Constitution of 1853 was based on the drafting committees' conception of what were the most applicable parts of the American Constitution, which they used as a model. The influence of the interior provinces was dominant this time, and the result was a decidedly federative document, to such an extent that Buenos Aires refused to ratify it. With regard to the judiciary, the federal court system was identical to the previous constitutions except, for some reason, the high court once again had a new name, this time becoming the *Corte Suprema de Justicia*. Original jurisdiction of the federal courts was expanded over the American model to provide for cognizance of cases: 1) arising between authorities of a province, 2) involving a province and any of its citizens, and 3) arising under the national codes—civil, commercial, penal and mining.

In 1860, Buenos Aires after suffering a military defeat agreed to ratify the Constitution, but only after several changes were adopted. Included in the changes was the elimination of the expanded original jurisdiction of the federal courts. Buenos Aires, in a reversal of its previous role, argued that they infringed upon provincial rights.

There was one area in which the Constitution of 1853 was deficient: it failed to give the federal courts the right to rule on the unconstitutionality of laws. This right was quickly assumed by the Supreme Court in 1864, however, in the case of *Fiscal v. B. Calvete*, but since then the court has been reluctant to use the right, fearing that it might embarrass the political branches of the government.

As with its predecessors the Constitution of 1852 contained a clause which called for the establishment, as soon as was practical, of trial by jury in criminal cases. In 1870, the Senate passed a bill which called for the establishment of jury trials, but the Chamber of Deputies amended the bill to have the President first appoint a committee to study the question. Four years later the committee submitted its report, but the Congress never acted upon it.

Slightly apart, but naturally very closely related to the courts, are the national legal codes. As early as 1814 Rivadavia had proposed a commercial code for the country, and in 1824 under his tutelage the province of Buenos Aires adopted its own. The Constitution of 1853 envisioned several

codes which were subsequently enacted. In 1862 the commercial code was borrowed with a few changes from Buenos Aires. In 1871 came the civil code and in 1877 the criminal and mining codes. The importance of these codes is that they eliminate the need for basing court decisions on judge-made precedents. They are updated, although infrequently, often enough to make them the current authority.

The most striking fact, at least to the American mind, is the complete reliance on written forms. Everything is put on paper. This leads to great expense as every word of testimony, attorney's opinions, and the like have to be submitted on stamped paper.

As a means of illustration, let us look first at a civil or commercial case. A man will bring suit, say to enforce a contract. His attorney will prepare the complaint, attach the necessary affidavits, and submit it to the court. The court will then issue a statement to the defendant and give him time to reply. Sometime later the trial will begin. It is closed to the public, and the presiding officer is not the judge, who is invariably too busy, but a secretary whose only duty is to make certain that all information is recorded in a book of evidence. Witnesses are heard, cross examined by both sides, and everything is written down, on stamped paper, of course. If more than one day is required to hear the witnesses, the secretary will schedule a continuation for some date two or three months distant. Delays are considered to be the norm, and the results are trials that drag on for months or years. One trial in the 1930's ran for ten years and went through 9,320 pages of evidence. When all witnesses have been called, rebuttals are prepared. Rebuttals and attorney's summaries run to great length because lawyer's fees relate to the number of pages written. Finally, when everything has been said and written, the complete record of the case is given to the trial judge who makes his decision based solely on it and without ever coming face to face with any of the participants.

Now let us turn to a criminal case. A man arrested and charged with violating the penal code is not given the benefit of counsel, nor is he allowed to communicate with his friends for a period of from 24 to 72 hours while the police prepare their case. When the police case is ready, the accused is taken before a *juez de instrucción*, a sort of combination committing magistrate and grand jury. The *juez* listens to the case presented by the police and interrogates the accused, but does not allow him to call any witnesses on his own behalf. Then, based on this information, the *juez* decides whether to hold the man over for trial. In the criminal trial, as in the civil and commercial trial, everything is written down. The trial is conducted in secret, again by a secretary. After long delays, a verdict will be issued by the trial judge based solely on the book of evidence.

Argentines criticize their judicial system sharply. There have been many suggestions for improvement, the most frequently heard being the institution of oral justice, but with no success. The attempt to institute a jury trial has also been frustrated. Trials are long and expensive, but most importantly, they are given almost no publicity. They are secret, held behind closed doors, and the records may only be viewed by designated authorities. Argentines, as a consequence, are never certain that justice has been done.

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FACULTY ACTIVITIES

Dr. Kenneth T. Cann, Department of Economics, was interviewed on WKYU-FM radio on the topic of recent changes in the Brazilian economy. In March, 1982, Dr. Cann was chairman and discussant for a session on human fertility at the meeting of the Southeast Council on Latin American Studies in Pine Mountain, Georgia.

Dr. Edmund Hegen, Department of Geography and Geology, presented a paper entitled "Quiquilco: The Deterioration of an Indian Community" at the meeting of the Southeastern Council on Latin American Studies in Pine Mountain, Georgia in March, 1982.

Dr. John Petersen, Department of Government and Assistant Vice President for Academic Affairs, was moderator for a session at the International Studies Association in March which featured Robert E. White, former Ambas-

sador to El Salvador, speaking on "Central America: Old Realities and New Myths." He was also a participant in meetings of the Latin American Studies Association and the Kentucky Council on International Education and served as President of the Kentucky-Ecuador Partners of the Americas this year. On April 16, Dr. Petersen gave a paper entitled "Assessment of the Nicaraguan Situation" at a session of the Seminars on the Third World Development at the University of Kentucky in Lexington and was also interviewed in April by radio station WKYU-FM on the Falkland crisis.

Dr. Ronald Seeger, Department of Geography and Geology, will teach a course in exploration geophysics at the Corporación Internacional para el Desarrollo Educativo (CIDE) in Bogotá, Colombia, August 9-27, 1982.

SPRING LECTURE SERIES ON LATIN AMERICA HELD

The Center for Latin American Studies and the Bowling Green Public Library co-sponsored a series of lectures on Latin America this spring. Lecture topics and speakers are listed below.

- January 21, 1982 Dr. James Martin, Agriculture
"Flowers, Fruits and Vegetables: The Flavor of Colombia and Ecuador"
- February 11, 1982 Dr. Edmund E. Hegen, Geography
"American Rivals on the Horizon: Mexico and Brazil - A.D. 2000"
- March 4, 1982 Dr. Joseph Cangemi, Psychology
"Venezuela, Mexico and the Philippines: Some Common Denominators Based on Recent First-hand Experience"
- April 1, 1982 Dr. Laurence Boucher, Chemistry
"Latin America and the Energy Crisis"
- April 29, 1982 Ms. Gayle Waggoner, Latin American Studies
"The Handmade Hammocks of Dona Ziloca: Traditional Brazilian Folk Art"

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